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# The Citizen

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## Life and Education.

The vigorous attempt of Mr. Roosevelt to enforce the excise laws of New York has emphasized the lamentable fact that a considerable proportion of Americans have no conception of legal obligations. Reputable newspapers and reputable citizens have denounced his course of "pietism," "espionage," and "persecution," while on the other hand the friends of total abstinence have hailed him as a defender of the faith, and the Sabbatarians have regarded him as an apostle of "Sabbath observance." Both classes, friends and foes alike, are laboring under a delusion so obvious that to point it out would be absurd if we did not have manifold evidence of its existence.

Mr. Roosevelt's private opinion on the subjects of temperance and Sabbath desecration would be suggestive as the conclusions of an educated, thoughtful gentleman, but it would be no more authoritative than the opinion of any other man of his gifts and attainments, and it has no more to do with his attitude in the present agitation than has his belief about free will and predestination. He has simply to do his duty under the existing laws regardless of his personal judgment as to the righteousness or iniquity of those laws.

Nothing is so demoralizing to a State as a loose conception of the dignity of law. Whether such laxity is fostered by free democracy is a question beyond the scope of an editorial, but evidence is appallingly frequent that gross misconceptions of the matter exist in America. When Dr. Parkhurst began his crusade he was taxed with malignant cruelty to an unfortunate class of women, and the irrelevant question was asked, why he didn't punish the men originally responsible for the fallen condition of these women. The Pennsylvania troops sent out to quell the Homestead riot were called the foes of honest labor and the friends of unjust capital. The present federal administration is criticised because it doesn't aid the Cubans in their struggle for independence. And so it goes. It is hard to get it into the heads of some presumably well-intentioned people that in all such issues the question is one of law and not of abstract right. Dr. Parkhurst demanded that the laws of New York be respected by sworn officials; the militia went to Homestead by command of the Governor to put down armed resistance to the laws of Pennsylvania; the administration's quiescence in Cuban affairs is a recognition of international law.

Happily, those most intimately affected by the excise laws of New York have been aroused to a right apprehension of the situation by Commissioner Roosevelt's attitude. That was a significant utterance made by the president of the New York Liquor Dealers'

Association when he said that the liquor dealers "must place themselves in the category of citizens who respect the law, *be it what it may*" (the italics are ours), and that they must seek their satisfaction by working for the enactment of more liberal laws. Mr. Roosevelt's real contribution to public morality lies in his enforcement of this primary lesson, that it is the business of the state's legislative servants to consider carefully if their measures are just and equitable, but that when these measures become statutes it is the single duty of the administrative servants to see that they are enforced, whatever the cost to public funds, blind sentiment, or even human life.

The social philosopher of the future who undertakes to estimate the formative forces of American character, will have to reckon with our new and growing love for out-door exercise. Americans have never lacked enthusiasm for athletic prowess; no men of British origin can be indifferent to "sports;" but unfortunately for the greatest general welfare, we have been too much inclined to delegate the actual conduct of our sports to a chosen few. Thus base-ball has become professional, and even among college students, who have gone mad over athletics. The active participants have been a few selected men, and these few, by the necessities of intercollegiate contests, since native strength and endurance are indispensable, the very men whose health least needed such encouragement.

It is only within recent years that forms of exercise adapted to all persons have been introduced. Polo and lacrosse have attracted young men who could not sustain the severe strain of foot-ball and track athletics, and lawn tennis was discovered to be admirably fitted for women as well as for men. With the introduction of light cedar boats and Canadian canoes, boating has become popular with the younger women whose strength is inadequate to the propulsion of the old, heavy row-boats. And now from Scotland we have imported golf, which seems to be an ideal game, in that by its easy conditions it offers opportunity for exercise to elderly people and even invalids. But the greatest boon to modern physical culture is the bicycle. This ubiquitous vehicle

has one claim upon our gratitude which all other pastimes seem to lack; its usefulness as well as its comparative cheapness has placed it within reach of people of all classes. It would have been natural to predict that with the increasing wealth of the country and the consequent release of a small proportion of the population from the daily grind of bread-winning, there would be established a leisure class whose pursuits would correspond to the recreations of their aristocratic cousins across the sea. These are the patrons of tennis, polo and golf. But the really hopeful feature of the present out-door tendency is its comprehensiveness, and for this the bicycle is responsible. The increase in the number of machines used during the past summer is almost incredible. Manufacturers have been three months behind their orders, sewing machine factories, typewriter factories and the like have been pressed into temporary service for the manufacture of minor parts of the bicycle, and it is reported that the watch trade has suffered severely, indicating that the class of young men who used to lay by their savings for the purchase of watches, has conceived the healthier ambition to possess bicycles.

Fashions come and go, and it would be unreasonable to suppose that the present feverish attachment to golf and the bicycle will last, even golf if it becomes a little less popular, as has tennis, will certainly be succeeded by something else. Bicycle "scorchers" whose hearts are set on "double century" runs and the "smashing of records," will get tired, but the bicycle will remain a means of pleasant locomotion to thousands until something better is substituted for it. The notable fact is this, that we Americans have again learned to play, an art which we seemed to lose during our grim struggle with the hardships of conquering a new world, and we have learned to play in the wholesomest manner, out of doors with fresh air in our lungs. Nature will soon begin to do its work, and a finer type will succeed the nervous, somewhat pale and hollow-chested men of the past generations, who accomplished miracles of enterprise at so terrible a cost to vital energy. Indeed, the change is already apparent to whomsoever has had an opportunity to see the half-naked,

muscular, brown-shouldered youths sprawling on the sea sands during the past summer. From that subtler influence which contact with silent nature exerts upon the human mind and soul, benefits incalculable will result. The situation is full of hope for all who desire the improvement of our race.

Akin to this subject is one growing out of the development and application of another invention, the electric railway. The influence of this means of transportation upon the congested districts of our cities by dispersing the population into suburbs, will tell perceptibly upon the physical and mental characteristics of our people. It is an ascertained fact that the average man will not live more than a certain distance from his place of business, a distance which he measures in terms not of space, but of time, about thirty minutes. Mechanical ingenuity has provided a means for making this time sufficient to transfer the business man many miles beyond the city's crowded streets, and it only remains for the human mind to work out such a plan of thoroughfare and schedule as will enable the machine to exert its capacity, and then "rapid transit" will be an accomplished fact. It is certainly coming by means of tunnel or overhead track, or some other device not yet thought of.

It is short-sighted to suppose that such a design is a concession to the over-eager temperament of the time; it is in reality a counter-actant to this malady. The grand object is not to get a man more quickly to his business, but rather to remove him further away from it, to get him nightly out of sight and hearing of all reminders of the day's care and care. It is to give him space to turn round without treading on his neighbor's toes, to give him a chance to develop laterally and not perpendicularly by giving him space to live in without piling story on story to the exclusion of sunlight and wholesome air from the street below. With a clear blue sky above him, a strip of lawn around him, and good oxygen in his lungs, his life will be wholesomer and happier. His children, too, will profit by an exchange of the confinement and contaminations of the pavement for semi-rural occupations.

It is always easy for the caviller to find disadvantages keeping step with the march of improvement, and so, even with the great good of athletic enthusiasm in plain sight, we may catch a glimpse of a decadence which, if not a distinct evil, is, at least, regrettable in the eyes of persons of certain tastes. Is not the Art of Loafing—a word which, without too much deference to Whitman, must be accepted as a definition—in danger of sinking into forgetfulness? Must we Americans take even our leisure too vigorously? We have taken our culture with a single mindedness and an attention to detail which is the surprise of nations. Our business activities have threatened to undermine the national physique, and have thus been a cause of the athletic reaction. Now that a love for healthful sport and out-of-door exercise seems to be fairly implanted in the American breast, let us hope that the capacity for the enjoyment of moments destitute of active occupation, but devoted to the benefit of quiet absorption, may not be lost for want of recognition.

Already in the country itself, the Sam Lawsons are growing few—those philosophers to whom objectless whittling and intermittent conversation are occupations enough for any man, and the anarchists who decry labor as well as capital, fill their places but inartistically and unsatisfactorily.

Lovers of the wheel claim for it that it introduces the hitherto indifferent to new pleasures of field and country road, river reaches and murmuring brooks; that it leads to a loving appreciation of the exhilaration of fresh air and the glories of sunset skies.

This may well be when the period of unnatural suspicion is over—when wagons, foot passengers, ditches, sand, mud, and obstacles of every sort cease to be the menacing dangers that they appear to the tyro, and the horizon reassumes its normal importance in relation to the handle bars. Nevertheless, in view of the hazards lying in wait for even the expert rider, there must always be a present precariousness, which, however ignored, lends an excitement to the present—an excitement utterly opposed to the spirit of calm absorption to which we owe so much



that is fine in character and in art. And instead of the affectionate reminiscence of the entrancing aspects of nature, that we expect to fall from the lips of the returned bicyclist, the true resultant pleasure seems to be rather in the record of the cyclometer.

It is so with golf, it is so with the games which are so largely, more or less directly, merely competitive—the ambition to “get there,” under one form or another, threatens to efface the pleasures of the progress.

It may be fanciful to attempt to trace a connection between the rarity of the meditative mood among readers, and the prevalence of short poems among writers, but certainly there is a falling off in long poems on the aspects of nature. It would be a brave Wordsworth who to-day would write an Excursion and expect to have it read in the moments of leisure accorded to the normal man or woman. Somebody would read it in order to write a review of it—a short review that one could read while waiting to start on an expedition for enjoying nature, but very few other people would. We are so used to the transient and the various, we can go so quickly from one aspect to another, that we demand that our poets shall give us an impression, not a description; or, we have so completely ushered into the quietest scenes the presence of contest, effort and attainment, that we insist on some human suggestion or some dramatic contrast within the limits of so-called poetry of nature. Our poets have realized that there is scant time for addresses and odes to the mighty manifestations of creative force and content themselves with the reflection of a fleeting mood caught in a dozen lines, and fixed on the page of a magazine.

Undoubtedly, there are still scattered throughout the country ways, those individuals, of whom one used to hear more often, who have their Horace or their Homer, their Addison or their Wordsworth in a convenient pocket, finding in an occasional line an impetus toward thought which shall spend

itself further in wanderings among the gracious suggestions of mountain and sea.

But the average man takes his holiday more energetically. Even a bicyclist cannot be expected to find the pleasures in the pathless woods; that he has found many, hitherto unknown, along a good road, is a thing to be thankful for, but there is something left to learn, for those to whom such pleasures are but an incident and not an end.

Loading is not a suspension of the faculties, it is but an attitude of willingness to receive. Nature is ready to bring us such good things if we will but keep still long enough to have them tossed into our laps.

The artist, the man of letters, is apt to seek an older world and a more indolent environment—it is not all because of the climate or the art schools—it is, partially, at any rate, that a wearier civilization is glad to countenance a more luxurious idleness—an idleness that does not seek to lavish itself upon games of skill, yacht racing, four-in-hands or social distractions, but lets its hours slip by in the contemplation of green trees, a field of scattered hay stacks, a bit of white sand and blue sea, a gray rock or a forest glade.

One does not wish to be an alien in one's own land, and it seems mean spirited to lie on one's back in the sun and watch sea gulls while our compatriots are learning new strokes at golf; but if there be such idlers still, let them console themselves with the thought that at least they are preserving a tradition—a tradition that may be of use in maintaining an equilibrium where there is so much restlessness to oppose to it.

There are sweet influences emanating from the Pleiades and other natural objects that can only be caught and yielded to, where one has time to put at their disposal, and when the present moment and not some future gain is enough for us.

While we seize upon each new device for healthful, physical pleasure, and for making available the resources of country highways to those who, perforce, see too much of city streets, it were well, perhaps, to remember that the successful manipulation of the device does not tell the whole refreshing story after all.

### A Plea for Filtration.

The remarkable advances which have been made in recent years in the study of microscopic forms of life, have rendered possible the solution of many questions heretofore involved in much uncertainty; but perhaps in no particular have the methods of bacteriological research proved of more service than in the study of the purification of water.

By the application of these methods much information of the very greatest value has been gained, with the result that it is now definitely known that filtration, when properly conducted, will convert a comparatively bad water into a wholesome one. Until within recent years it has been customary to rely upon chemical analysis as the best means at our disposal for the study of problems of this character; but no one knew better than the chemist himself how seriously defective the interpretations of his analyses were apt to be, as a conclusion regarding the quality of the water could only be reached indirectly and by inference.

It is probable that water such as is generally used for city supply is rarely unwholesome for any other reason than that it contains disease-producing bacteria; and the bacteriologists have not only furnished methods by which these can be detected, but have also brought forward convincing proof that they can be readily removed by filtration, when carefully and scientifically conducted.

Statistics have long shown that whenever a contaminated water supply has been purified by filtration, there has been an immediate improvement in the public health. Precisely how filtration accomplishes this change it was at one time difficult to explain, but now that the germ theory of disease is irrefutably established, and that the removal of disease germs from water, by the process of filtration, can be demonstrated as an absolute fact, there is no longer any mystery regarding the efficiency of the process.

Impure water usually contains a very large number of bacteria as the invariable accompaniment of decaying organic matter; and while it by no means necessarily follows, it is in most cases probable, that these bacteria are associated with some of the dangerous individuals which give rise to the various ills ascribed to a contaminated water supply. In purifying water the sanitarian does not even stop to distinguish between the different kinds of bacteria; he treats them all as enemies of the public health, and endeavors to get rid of them as a whole: this is the only sure way, and, indeed, at present, the only possible way.

The number of bacteria present in a given volume of water can be determined with comparative accuracy. In spite of their marvelously minute proportions, they can be counted much more readily than one unacquainted with the *modus operandi* would imagine possible; and it is this possibility which has in recent years given such an impetus to the study of the purification of water, and which has indirectly taught us so much about the efficiency of sand filtration. In order to estimate the value of any process from a hygienic standpoint, it is only necessary to make a comparison of the number of bacteria present in the water before and after treatment, and it follows that the greater the reduction the more successful has been the purification.

In this way it has been found as the result of numerous and searching experiments, conducted for a series of years, that upward of 96 per cent of the bacteria are removed by the sand filters of London and Berlin. Similar experiments with similar results have been conducted in this country, notably at Lawrence, Mass.

It will be interesting to turn to some of the figures actually obtained in the course of a study of the London water supply, undertaken by Dr. Frankland at the request of the Local Government Board.

LONDON WATER SUPPLY (1888).

| NAME OF SUPPLY.                    | JAN.   | FEB.   | MARCH. | APRIL. |
|------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| <i>Thames.</i>                     |        |        |        |        |
| Thames water, unfiltered (Hampton) | 92,000 | 40,000 | 66,000 | 13,000 |
| Chelsea . . . . .                  | 127    | 152    | 54     | 38     |
| West Middlesex . . . . .           | 60     | 146    | 408    | 158    |
| Southwark . . . . .                | 177    | 766    | 742    | 47     |
| Grand Junction . . . . .           | 90     | 349    | 617    | 56     |
| Lambeth . . . . .                  | 189    | 820    | 321    | 157    |
| Reduction per cent                 | 99.9   | 98.9   | 99.4   | 99.3   |

The above figures give the number of bacteria in one cubic centimetre of water. The figures in the top line refer to the Thames in its unfiltered condition, and all the others to the water after filtration by the various companies as named. Filtration as conducted in Berlin is no less successful. The water supply in this case is derived from two sources, Lake Tegel and the River Spree. The following figures taken from the *Zeitschrift für Hygiene* convey a definite idea of the results accomplished:

## BERLIN WATER BEFORE AND AFTER FILTRATION.

| <i>Average results for ten consecutive months.</i> |              |             |
|--|--------------|-------------|
|  | River Spree. | Lake Tegel. |
| Unfiltered . . . . .                               | 11,278       | 2,623       |
| Filtered . . . . .                                 | 179          | 97          |
| Reduction per cent . .                             | 98.4         | 96.3        |

The figures refer as before to the number of bacteria in one cubic centimetre.

At the Lawrence experimental station of the Massachusetts State Board of Health, equally good or, indeed, better work has been done, and the most recent results are particularly worthy of notice, as they appear to have established the possibility of conducting filtration at a considerably higher speed than has heretofore been regarded as consistent with the best results. For economical reasons this is extremely important.

In view of the prevalence of typhoid fever and also of the possibility of a cholera epidemic, the city of Lawrence decided in 1892 to purify its water by filtration. A filter was constructed at a cost of \$65,000, having an area of two and a half acres, and a daily capacity of 5,000,000 gallons. The results obtained during seven consecutive months, 1893-94, are as follows:

## BACTERIA IN ONE CUBIC CENTIMETRE.

|                                   |      |
|-----------------------------------|------|
| River water, unfiltered . . . . . | 9000 |
| " " filtered . . . . .            | 150  |

It thus appears that 98.33 per cent of the bacteria were removed. The following remarks, taken from a paper printed in the last report of the Massachusetts State Board of Health, and written by one of the members of the board, sufficiently indicate that the anticipated beneficial results have been realized:

"We find that the mortality from typhoid fever has, during the use of the filter, been reduced to 40 per cent of the former mortality, and that the cases forming nearly one half of this 40 per cent were undoubtedly due to the continued use of unfiltered river water drawn from the canals. . . . .

"We can say further that the physicians have very generally reported a marked improvement in the health of the people since the filter came into use.

"The study of this problem and its solution have established with more certainty than ever before three important points in sanitary science:

"(1) The insufficiency of the self-purification of streams.

"(2) The ready conveyance of typhoid fever down a stream by sewage-polluted drinking water.

"(3) The practicability of protecting a community against an infected drinking water supply, by natural sand filtration."

It is scarcely necessary to refer individually to the results obtained in other water works: in every instance there is the same record of remarkable bacterial improvement, accompanied by the conversion of a more or less turbid or, indeed, muddy water, into a clear and sparkling one.

During the past decade the evidence in favor of filtration has accumulated to such an extent that we can no longer afford to disregard it. The lessons it teaches are of such supreme importance that we should not fail to learn them, apply them, and profit by them.

It has long been recognized that the water supplied to Philadelphia has been very unsatisfactory, and while the reports of its impurity have been frequently exaggerated it is nevertheless sufficiently impure to render improvement imperative. But while all have felt that something should be done, there has been an unfortunate difference of opinion as to what that should be, and this has delayed the much needed improvement. This condition of affairs has been largely brought about by the over-zealous course adopted by several newspapers, which have freely circulated, and indeed given special prominence to inaccurate and exaggerated statements. The result, for which we have simply to thank ourselves, is that nothing has yet been done, and our water supply remains in essentially the same condition, with the exception of the abandonment of the Kensington pumping station, as when, some five or six years ago, the sensational newspaper articles, above referred to, were published.

At that time so many bad things were said about the water that it was only natural for those who depended solely upon the newspapers for their information, to suppose that the Schuylkill was far beyond the reach of purification by any such simple means as filtration affords. Consequently while a comparative few demanded that the water be filtered, a larger number were asserting that the Schuylkill must be forthwith abandoned, and a new source of supply found. A few years have passed and a gradual change of sentiment has come about which has more especially manifested itself during the past year. The outcry is no longer for a new supply, but an almost unanimous demand for filtration has arisen. This change in sentiment has been largely due to several causes: first, to a better acquaintance with what filtration can accomplish; second, to a realization that there had been much exaggeration in regard to the condition of the water; and third, to a growing conviction that the more costly schemes, involving many



millions, such as bringing water from a distance, are, for the present at least, impracticable. If this unanimous desire for filtration continues to make itself felt, the pressure exerted must inevitably before long be productive of good results. It must, however, be borne in mind that the difficulties in the way of supplying this city with filtered water are considerably greater than those that exist elsewhere, for the reason that the consumption of water per head is with us much greater than is usual; and unless this can be materially reduced filtration will undoubtedly prove unusually costly.

The following are very instructive figures for purposes of comparison:

*Average daily per capita consumption of water in gallons.*

| YÉAR.          | PHILADELPHIA. | NEW YORK.    |
|----------------|---------------|--------------|
| 1885 . . . . . | 72 . . . . .  | 84 . . . . . |
| 1886 . . . . . | 80 . . . . .  | 85 . . . . . |
| 1887 . . . . . | 89 . . . . .  | 86 . . . . . |
| 1888 . . . . . | 100 . . . . . | 85 . . . . . |
| 1889 . . . . . | 110 . . . . . | 84 . . . . . |
| 1890 . . . . . | 131 . . . . . | 90 . . . . . |
| 1891 . . . . . | 140 . . . . . | 91 . . . . . |
| 1892 . . . . . | 143 . . . . . | 90 . . . . . |
| 1893 . . . . . | 150 . . . . . | 93 . . . . . |
| 1894 . . . . . | 159 . . . . . | 94 . . . . . |

It is thus seen that the waste of water in Philadelphia has enormously increased in recent years, for while the daily consumption in 1885 was less than that in New York by 12 gallons *per capita*, it now exceeds it by 65 gallons; and we can certainly conceive of no change in the methods of life of the inhabitants of this city which could have given rise, in less than ten years, to a legitimate daily increase of 87 gallons *per capita*. The extraordinary conclusion is therefore forced upon us that Philadelphia in 1895 wastes more water than the total consumption, including waste, amounted to in 1885. This conclusion, suggested entirely by a consideration of the above figures, is corroborated by the evidence furnished by a series of tests made by the Water Department in 1892. Several districts were chosen in the centre of the city; these were divided up so as to be under meter control; and as the result of numerous observations made during the day and night, it appeared that of the average consumption of 157 gallons per head in these districts, no less than 95 gallons were wasted, or 62 per cent of the whole amount used. The ex-chief engineer of the Philadelphia Bureau of Water, after referring, in his report for 1892, to the fact that the consumption of water *per capita* had almost doubled in seven years, states that "this is largely due to waste and bad plumbing." May we not add, possibly also to defective mains and leaky reservoirs.

The extravagant use of water in this city renders imperative a careful study of the various systems of filtration with a view to securing that which can be operated with the greatest economy. Fortunately, we have sufficient data for this purpose. The numerous experiments made by other cities, as well as the experience gained in the operation of their filtering plants, will undoubtedly furnish most of the information required. And when a selection has been made, based upon results actually obtained elsewhere, it will simply be necessary to assure ourselves, by the experimental application of the process selected for adoption, that the water of this city has no individual peculiarities which will render the process any less successful than it has proved to be when operated with other supplies.

In the selection of a process there should be absolutely no compromise between results on the one hand and cost on the other; that system giving the most perfect filtration obtainable, at any cost that is at all practicable, should be unhesitatingly adopted.

At the present moment, filtration, and the consequent very material improvement in the water supply of this city, seems more nearly assured than at any time in the past; but caution will be necessary in the further discussion of the subject, lest serious differences of opinion, founded upon inaccurate data arise, as to precisely how the water should be filtered. These differences will mean inevitable delay. Indeed very inaccurate statements have already been circulated, and considerable opposition, based upon an imperfect knowledge of the facts, has arisen to certain methods of filtration which after all may yet prove the best for the task in hand, and which most certainly should not be put aside without being given impartial consideration. It is not the intention of the writer to advocate any particular system of filtration, but such opposition as has arisen to the mechanical processes, or to the use of alum, based merely upon prejudice, or at best, upon inaccurate knowledge of their operation and what it can accomplish, must be condemned. Such statements, too, do much harm by creating false impressions afterward difficult to eradicate.

To correct, if possible, some of the statements referred to, it may perhaps be well to turn to a paper published early this year in the *Medical News*, by the Superintendent of Health, of Providence, Rhode Island. He writes:

"Of late years there have been largely employed so-called 'mechanical' filters, which make use of a layer of ferric hydroxid or alumina upon the surface of the sand, instead of the 'dirt layer,' as the Germans call the

surface of an ordinary sand filter. In consideration of the difficulties in the management of sand filters, the city council of Providence voted to construct a system of these mechanical filters—with this proviso, that it should be approved by the City Engineer, the Commissioner of Public Works, and the Superintendent of Health. After experimenting nearly a year, the commission unanimously recommended the construction of such a filter plant; but, owing to legal difficulties concerning patents alleged to cover the process, the works have not been built. . . . I have made careful inquiry at Lakewood and Long Branch, Chattanooga, Atlanta, Newport, and a number of other cities which have used the 'alum process,' as it is sometimes called, and have failed to elicit any information which would show that the addition of 'alum' to the water was unwholesome.

"Our experiments showed that the filter was easily managed, and, for removing bacteria as well as for the other purposes of a filter, was more efficient than any other practical method with which we were acquainted. Our bacteriologic tests were made with great care, and for a large number of days hourly samples were taken. The average removal of water-bacteria as given by these tests was 98.7 per cent. . . . The removal of coloring matter amounted to about 80 per cent. The removal of the 'free ammonia' was often complete, and of the 'albuminoid ammonia'—dissolved organic matter—was 66 per cent. This is important, as it is much better than can be done with a sand filter, and the removal of this material by precipitation removed just so much of the pabulum of the micro-organisms.

"It is very likely that for some cities sand filters are to be preferred, for when properly managed they do excellent work. But I believe that the best results are more likely to be obtained by the 'mechanical' plan, and I therefore urged its adoption by my own city."

In order that filtration may give rise to the most satisfactory permanent improvement, it is necessary that the water should not contain an excess of dissolved organic matter, as in the presence of organic substances the bacteria which filtration has failed to remove, will multiply again rapidly. Numerous analyses of the Schuylkill water furnish satisfactory evidence that in this particular it is usually all that can be desired. The following lines, quoted from an article by the writer, printed in the *Journal of the Franklin Institute* about five years ago, may be here referred to as dealing somewhat more in detail with this important matter.

. . . "We are compelled to regard the quantity of the organic substances discharged into the river after leaving Phoenixville, as somewhat greater than the combined action of the natural processes of purification and the subsiding reservoirs have been able to dispose of. During the six months covered by my investigation these impurities were almost entirely mechanically suspended, and by a suitable system of filtration could have been readily removed, leaving the water remarkably free from organic matter.

. . . "Mud, whether wholesome or unwholesome, has obviously no place either in drinking water or in water to be used for household or industrial purposes, and to show therefore that the mud of the Schuylkill water is accompanied by precipitated organic matters derived from sewage, seems to me to add little to the many emphatic arguments which can be already urged with unquestionable force against its presence being tolerated. But, on the other hand, by showing that practi-

cally the entire amount of the substances, which can be considered objectionable, are present in suspension and can be readily removed, leaving a water of a high degree of purity, how strong an argument for carrying out such purification."

The relative condition of the Hamburg and Altona water supplies during the cholera epidemic of 1892 has often been quoted as an argument in favor of filtration, and it is indeed so convincing a one that it cannot be referred to too often. The following description is taken from that excellent work, "Micro-organisms in Water," by Dr. and Mrs. Frankland.

"Hamburg and Altona are both dependent upon the river Elbe for their water supply, but whereas in the case of Hamburg the intake is situated above the city, the supply for Altona is abstracted below Hamburg, after it has received the sewage of a population of close upon 800,000 persons. The Hamburg water was, therefore, to start with, relatively pure when compared with that destined for the use of Altona. But what was the fate of these two towns as regards cholera? Situated side by side, absolutely contiguous in fact, with nothing in their surroundings or in the nature of their population to especially distinguish them, in the one cholera swept away thousands, while in the other the scourge was scarcely felt; in Hamburg the deaths from cholera amounted to 1250 per 100,000, and in Altona to but 221 per 100,000 of the population. So clearly defined, moreover, was the path pursued by the cholera, that although it pushed from the Hamburg side right up to the boundary line between the two cities, it there stopped, this being so striking that in the one street, which for some distance marks the division between these towns, the Hamburg side was stricken down with cholera, while that belonging to Altona remained free. The remarkable fact was brought to light that, in those houses supplied with Hamburg water cholera was rampant, while in those on the Altona side and furnished with Altona water not one case occurred.

"The Hamburg water, however, to start with was, as we have seen, relatively pure when compared with the foul liquid abstracted from the Elbe by Altona; but whereas in the one case the water was submitted to exhaustive and careful filtration through sand before delivery, in Hamburg the Elbe water was distributed in its raw condition as taken from the river. But further testimony was afforded later to the truth of this interpretation; for during the ensuing winter, when the cases of cholera had almost completely died out in Hamburg, suddenly a most unexpected and unaccountable recrudescence of the epidemic occurred, and this time in Altona. This outbreak could not be traced to any direct infection from Hamburg, but must have arisen in Altona itself. In all about forty-seven cases were recorded between December 23, 1892, and February 12, 1893. A searching inquiry was instituted, and it was ascertained that the number of bacteria found in the filtered water, usually about fifty, had during these months risen to as many as 1000 and more in l. c., clearly indicating that the filtration of the water was not being efficiently carried out. That this was actually the case was proved by the fact that one of the sand filters, which had been cleaned during the frost, had become frozen over, and was in consequence not able to retain the bacteria. That the outbreak did not become more serious Koch ascribes to the fact that this imperfectly filtered water was so largely diluted by that which had been efficiently filtered.

"There cannot be any longer a doubt, therefore, as to the value of sand filtration as a means of water purification; but the responsibility which we have seen attaches to this treatment of water cannot be exaggerated, for

while when efficiently pursued it forms a most important barrier to the dissemination of disease germs, the slightest imperfection in its manipulation is a constant menace during any epidemic."

There is scarcely a day when the water of Philadelphia does not reflect discredit upon the city. Filtration must change this. Its efficiency is established, and its adoption will ensure a wholesome and palatable supply. There should be no further delay; the outlay involved does not justify it, and the benefits to be derived are so great that they should be immediately secured. Let all unite in demanding filtration, and let the demand continue until filtration has become an accomplished fact.

SAMUEL C. HOOKER.

### Charles Reade.

Charles Reade died in 1884. It is more than forty years since the novels of "Peg Woffington" and "Christie Johnstone" were published. The keystone of its author's fortune, "It is Never too Late to Mend," first saw the light in 1856, and his most important work, "The Cloister and the Hearth," appeared in 1860. Contemporary criticism of Reade was capricious and baffling; severe or cold to his early work, more deserving in artistic finish than his later productions, which won attention and considerable applause. The interest of a large body of intelligent readers was gained by the intrinsic merits of the author; this interest grew into general public recognition, and in turn compelled serious critical consideration. Such consideration was not, however, always favorable. When any strictures were made upon his subjects or his methods, Reade retorted in print, and so became involved in endless controversy. In such a contest the press holds the weapon of reiteration; it has the persistent word, and the last word. The passionate and headlong attacks which Charles Reade made upon the most obscure paragraphers, whose justice he questioned, delivered him over to an enemy who is too often cowardly and tyrannical. Not only did the thin-skinned author suffer under the counter-attacks of those whose judgments he was unable to support with dignity and in silence, but his reputation has suffered a permanent injury thereby.

It is always interesting, after some interval, in the rapidly changing progress of literary taste, to consider how an author stands in relation to his contemporaries and successors. After the lapse of a generation, it is especially so with Charles Reade, who was placed by

personal and arbitrary conditions in such an unfair light while he lived.

Were Reade here to-day he would certainly have received the accolade of knighthood together with Besant as a champion of social reform. The tales by which he won his instant fame were written with an intense purpose. However worthy the intention, with whatever ingenuity the author has woven the facts collected from his famous scrap-books into a wonderfully homogeneous whole, these have not maintained their popularity. It is the artistic motive alone which prevails and endures. The play and the story of "Peg Woffington," "Christie Johnstone," "Art," "Clouds and Sunshine," and "The Cloister and the Hearth" are read more than all the rest of Reade's works put together.

The classification of authors and the comparison of one with another, like an attempt to state arithmetical ratios between different orders of objects is absurdly impossible. There was a time when it was customary to balance the qualities of Dickens against those of Thackeray. When Charles Reade died he was placed by the writers of obituary notices below Dickens and Thackeray and assigned a leading position in the second class with Wilkie Collins and Trollope, whose characteristics were weighed and measured with those attributed to him. It is a crude method of obtaining the values of a literary celebrity to contrast them with those of other individuals. The critical faculty is not to be thus exercised. It should be in itself capable of independent judgment, having assimilated the elements of opinion from the whole field of literature. Nothing is more *borné* than the temper which can only appreciate one author by undervaluing another.

Reade, then, judged upon his own merits, after the period of specialized, analytic literature which has succeeded his death, still retains a considerable interest and an unexpected number of readers, as the records of the libraries indicate. He was a good story teller, which it was his ambition to be, and he has the rare quality of enlisting and holding the attention. He is pure, sympathetic and hearty. "A Good Fight," (the original title of "The Cloister and the Hearth,") illustrates, as its name symbolizes, the hard and patient struggle by which he overcame the difficulties of reproducing the life and atmosphere of another age. The conscientiousness of his work is an attractive element in it and partially compensates for his lack of imagination. At least a fourth of his time as a literary worker was given to the collection, preparation and indexing of materials, and the labor was not in vain. The dramatic tone of his novels

lends them another attraction; and the fact that some of his actual dramatizations are still performed, doubtless accounts in a measure for the permanent popularity of his works. It has been said that they are perhaps rather stagy than truly dramatic. Certainly the effort to make a point does sometimes obtrude itself with the suggestion of the traditional forms of the playhouse. There seems to be no reason, however, why such faithful, intelligent, entertaining story telling as Charles Reade's should not endure. His Homeric ambition led him far above the minutiae, the introspections, the finical detail of the moderns. A dip into him is as refreshing as into Walter Scott. Though the number of his dramatic personæ is exceedingly small, reappearing throughout his stories with absolute certainty, his characters are depicted with admirable distinctness, and, even if they occasionally suggest the wires of the marionettes, they perform a drama which is always absorbing and sometimes exciting.

The personality of Charles Reade was very interesting. He has done what he could to paint his own portrait in his work-room, describing his surroundings and his methods of composition as Mr. Rolfe in "A Terrible Temptation." He calls himself a "writer of romances founded on fact." "He looked like a farmer, he walked like a sailor," he goes on, but he does not tell us that he had the dignified manners of the old school and that to women he was a very Bayard of chivalrous devotion. If he was childish in the fret and friction of the world, he was childlike in his own home and among his friends.

It has been noted that it was by a strange spite of fate that the learned man, the college graduate and fellow, the inheritor of family traditions, alone in these distinctions among his brethren, should have been overlooked and neglected so long by the conservative English press. It might have been expected that a gentleman would have been hailed as a writer for gentlemen. The explanation probably lies in the fact that during the earlier portion of his career he wrote for a flashy weekly London journal, then an unprecedented thing for an author of reputation. Money was necessary to him, for his father, the Squire of Ipsden House, had a large family, and Charles quickly exhausted his portion. Even the income of his fellowship at Magdalen was very important to the combative author whose profits were wasted in lawsuits. Nor was he naturally inclined to regard conventionalities. As Dean of Arts and Vice-President he resided for two years at the University, as he was obliged to do,

but his other visits were few and far between and he had very little sympathy with the academical corporation. The vein of bohemianism which was in Charles Reade was naturally developed by his devotion to the stage and his associations with theatrical people. His early thoughts and ambitions were entirely centred on play-writing. In those days the dramatist did not receive the vast rewards which are now reaped by those who succeed in this field, but the expectation of the immediate returns of the dramatic author also instigated his efforts in this direction.

The determining influence which shaped his whole career, however, was that of his friend, Mrs. Seymour. This lady, whose friendship had such a potent effect upon Charles Reade's character and writings, was an actress at the Haymarket Theatre, where he met her in 1850, and she continued his counsellor, inspirer, and critic until her death in 1879. With her husband she made a home for the rising author, and after the husband's death remained Reade's housekeeper in the famous establishment in Albert Gate, where they entertained their separate circles of friends, generally meeting only at dinner. Not only in his plays, but in everything he wrote, Mrs. Seymour was his silent partner. Plots and situations and characters were discussed beforehand with her, and the dialogue submitted to her judgment. She read the proofs, and at every stage was an unsparing and faithful judge. She was neither a great actress nor a woman of fine culture, but like so many of the sisterhood, practical and clear-headed to a degree. Broad, just, yet sympathetic, Mrs. Seymour reinforced that instinct for genuineness and veracity, which was a natural quality of Reade's. His rashness of temper and consequent vacillation of motive, his subjection to every impulse, the contradictions of an obstinate will, and a yielding affection were controlled by her dominant common sense. Yet it may be questioned whether the effect she exerted upon one who needed imagination was not disastrous to the development of his higher powers. The hand of the mime may almost be traced in the frequent trickeries, and turns which do not ring true, like the catch-words and cheap artifices employed to bring down the house.

His mother was another potent influence in the life of Charles Reade. He was her favorite child, and his inscription of "Christie Johnstone:" "I dedicate all that is good in this work to my mother," expressed the sincere filial devotion of his heart. The blind affection of two women was almost the only immediate contact he experienced with his



fellow creatures. The loss of his mother was a great shock, though tempered by the failure in her mental power, which made death in some sort a relief. He never recovered from the death of Mrs. Seymour. His appealing, truthful, lovable side made him the petted and spoiled child of the household, and, as a man, he lived in an atmosphere of dangerous adulation. No inmate of his home, indeed, could have resisted the genial social temper, the winningness of his manners. He loved to talk of himself with an egotism like that of a boy. He was, indeed, boyish to a degree in little things, such as his way of singing snatches of melody, laying his head on the piano to enjoy the vibrations while a friend was playing to him, his simple musical tastes (his favorite song was "The Minstrel Boy to the Wars has Gone"), his gastronomical fancies, his enjoyment of his inventions in the furniture and fittings of his apartment.

As the lad turned to his fond mother from the discipline of a hard master at school, the grown-up boy, flattered and soothed when he fell under the castigation of his critics, learned nothing from them, and his indignation and sense of injury were fed and fostered. Had his life been subjected to conditions which would have strengthened the better elements of his character, to the responsibilities of ordinary domestic life, and to more natural association with mankind, he would have wrought more successfully. The companionship of stronger intellects might have even broadened his imagination. In sacrifice for others, his self-consciousness would have been lessened and his powers of control increased.

Certain it is that the man who fought in the courts so bitterly was the tenderest ministrant to his guests. The pen, which he wielded after the fashion of a sword in his perpetual paper wars with his enemies, wrote the most chivalric phrases to his friends. Criticism, to which he was so intensely sensitive in type, he courted *viva voce* in the freest discussion of his works. Even with casual acquaintances he spoke with such impulsive freedom that he himself repented of it the next moment, and dreaded to be taken advantage of. To the credit of human nature, and perhaps no less to that of his own limpid, frank character, this very seldom happened.

The purity of Reade's mind, which was a fit accompaniment to his child-likeness, was illustrated by his falling out with Dion Boucicault over the dramatization of "Foul Play." Boucicault, the mechanical dramatist *par excellence*, was employed by Reade to shape the novel for the stage, his own efforts in that direction having been heretofore unsuccessful.

A cartoon of the day shows the two men on a plank at sea, the smaller (Boucicault), bald and neat, launching a big, heavy, ungainly figure (Reade) into the waves. The quarrel occurred in reference to the compromising situation of the hero and heroine, lovers but not free to marry, who are cast ashore on a desolate island. Reade desired to maintain the delicacy and propriety of the situation, as in the novel; Boucicault contended that it was unnatural, and therefore inartistic. Reade was obstinate. Boucicault maintained that no man would be such an idiot as the hero; Reade retorted that a gentleman would never forget himself; Boucicault asserted that no lady was ever such a country prude as the heroine; Reade told Boucicault that he never knew a lady. The quarrel waxed so warm that, for a time, the intended partners would neither meet, speak, nor exchange communications. A common friend endeavored to obtain the play which Boucicault was preparing for Reade's revision when the quarrel took place, but Reade was led to believe that Boucicault had failed to complete it out of malice, so that he fell to and prepared one himself; and was about to start with his version for the theatre when he was informed that his late coadjutor, turned rival, had stolen a march upon him and had actually rehearsed "Foul Play." Boucicault and Reade were reconciled by Reade's attached American friend, Mr. Edward H. House (called "Mr. Howse" by Reade's biographer), with whom he had exchanged many kindnesses.

The theatre's attraction for Charles Reade was very strong; he struggled against it as he came to despair of the regenerating influence which he had always looked for, hoping against hope. When his beautiful adaptation of Tennyson's "Dora" failed in London, he consoled himself with the prediction that it was a quarter of a century before its time. In his later years he called the existing theatre "a den of lubricity," and it is the judgment of his friends that the excitement and disturbing associations of his final dramatic speculation cost him his life. He had certain religious scruples as to his relation to the stage, and from this last venture he emerged worried and anxious. He died, however, in the odor of sanctity, having near him the clergyman under whose influence he had experienced the sincerest convictions. It was on Good Friday. The anomalous career of the dramatist, journalist and novelist closed with his burial in the Willesden churchyard, where he was laid by the side of his friend. He left with his dying hand a profession of Christian faith, fervent, humble and hopeful.

CATHARINE MARY REYNOLDS-WINSLOW.

### The City Councils of Philadelphia.

In Pennsylvania cities are divided into three classes. The first class comprises cities having a population of more than 600,000 inhabitants. Philadelphia is the only one meeting this requirement. The general legislative power of all cities is vested in two bodies of substantially co-ordinate powers, select and common councils. In cities of the first class the common council is composed of a sufficient number of members from each ward to give one for every 2000 names on the completed assessors' lists of the year in which the election of councilmen is held. Members of common council must be residents of the ward for which they are chosen and must possess the same qualifications as members of the lower branch of the state legislature.

The select council is composed of one member from each ward, and the qualifications are the same as those required for state senators. The members of select council are elected for a term of three years, one-third of the number being chosen each year. The term of common councilmen is two years, one-half chosen each year.

No person can at the same time be a member of councils and hold any office under the state except that of a deputy, an employé not holding a commission, or a notary public. Nor can a member of councils, while serving as such, hold any city or county office within the choice of the people, nor any office, employment or agency directly chosen by councils or by either branch, during the period for which he has been elected. The election of members to both branches for regular terms of service is held on the third Tuesday in February. Vacancies are filled for the unexpired term at the next election after they occur.

Each branch has power to pass upon the qualifications of its own members. This does not, however, confer the same power that the constitution vests in the legislature, as to its members, nor does it conflict with, or supersede, the power of the courts to inquire into questions of disqualification or to decide contested election cases. Members of councils serve without legal compensation, and they are forbidden to vote themselves any pay for services rendered either in their capacity as councilmen or as members of any committee emanating from councils.

The Bullitt bill did not in any way change the composition of councils. It dealt chiefly with the reorganization, concentration, and co-ordination of the several administrative departments. Certain administrative functions which had been granted by special acts to councils and certain others which councils

had in the course of time usurped were simply transferred to the departments where they properly belonged, and councils were once more prohibited from exercising them. A single clause from the act of consolidation of 1854 shows that at that time it was the aim of the general assembly to confine the activity of councils to purely legislative matters; yet, at the time that the Bullitt bill was passed councils had acquired almost complete control of the various administrative departments. The act of consolidation provided that "no member or members of councils whether as a committee or otherwise shall make any disbursements of public moneys, nor audit the accounts thereof, nor perform any other executive duty whatever."

Every one of these prohibitions was ignored openly and regularly. No attempt was made to draw any distinction whatever between legislative and administrative functions. The heads of the departments were in the main the creatures of councils, and of course entered no protest against their encroachments. To make matters worse the general assembly granted back in detail what it had taken away by wholesale. Almost in the same breath with which it denied councils the power to exercise any administrative functions it provided that their supervision should extend to adjudging the character of all work done for the city and the quality of all material used in doing that work. They were even empowered to scrutinize all accounts and vouchers for work done or material furnished. It is not, then, a matter of surprise that councils should simply obey the tendency of every legislative body, and constantly encroach upon the powers of the other departments, especially when the general assembly hopelessly confused legislative and administrative functions.

Councils meet for organization annually upon the first Monday in April, when each branch chooses a president, and such other officers as it may deem necessary for the proper transaction of business. The amount paid in salaries to subordinate officials connected with councils is at present \$26,240, an increase of 69 per cent since the first year under the Bullitt bill.

Each member of councils is required, before entering upon the duties of his office, to take the oath prescribed by the constitution for all state and county officials, which reads as follows: "I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support, obey, and defend the constitution of the United States and the constitution of this commonwealth, and that I will discharge the duties of my office with fidelity; that I have not paid or contributed, or promised to pay or contribute, either directly or

indirectly, any money or other valuable thing to procure my nomination or election, except for necessary and proper expenses expressly authorized by law; that I have not knowingly violated any election law of this commonwealth or procured it to be done by others in my behalf; that I will not knowingly receive, directly or indirectly, any moneys or other valuable thing for the performance or nonperformance of any act or duty pertaining to my office other than the compensation allowed by law."

The penalties attached to any form of official corruption or bribery in connection with councils are very severe. If the rumors that from time to time are afloat in regard to corrupt practices by members of councils could be proved to be true, it would be a serious matter for the persons concerned. Any member who solicits or receives, or consents to receive, directly or indirectly, in any way or form, any money or valuable thing for his vote or influence for or against any measure is liable, upon conviction, to a fine of \$10,000 and to imprisonment for five years, and in addition is rendered incapable of holding any office of trust or profit in the commonwealth.

Any member who has a personal interest in a bill proposed or pending is required to disclose that fact to the body of which he is a member, and to refrain from voting on it. If a member fails to disclose the fact that he has a personal interest in a measure, and the bill is carried by his vote, he forfeits his seat. Any person who directly or indirectly attempts to influence a member of councils in any way in the performance of his duties by offers of money or any other valuable thing is liable to a fine of \$1000 and to imprisonment for two years.

Members of councils are prohibited from furnishing any materials or supplies to any one having a contract with the city if the material is to be used in the work done under such contract. They are also forbidden to be interested directly or indirectly in any contract with the city, either at its inception or during the progress of its fulfillment. The violation of this provision works a forfeiture of office, and renders the person violating it liable to a fine of \$500. Under any rational interpretation members of councils who are stockholders or directors in electric light companies with which the city has contracts are liable to the above penalty.

Although it is commonly believed that the power of councils was very much curtailed by the Bullitt bill, this is a mistake so far as it concerns any matter that properly falls within the purview of a legislative department. Their control over the public purse was in no

wise diminished, and it rests upon councils alone to determine not only how much money shall be raised by taxation, but also for what purposes the public funds shall be spent. The power to apportion the public moneys is one of great importance, and often under a vicious custom of granting for each purpose a certain percentage of the amount asked for, public works of pressing and permanent importance are sacrificed and large sums frittered away on useless expenditures or temporary expedients.

Although councils are forbidden to increase the number of administrative departments beyond that fixed by the Bullitt bill, they have full power to increase at will the number of bureaus and officials. Not even a messenger may be permanently employed without their consent. Their power to fix the compensation of employes is an important one and easily liable to abuse. This enables them to raise or diminish the salaries of officials after they have been appointed, and may be used to reward political friends and punish political enemies. They cannot, however, increase or diminish the compensation of elective officers during the period for which they have been chosen. But the number of elective officials is so small that this restriction, important in itself, amounts to little.

By act of assembly, councils may, by an ordinance, passed by a two-thirds vote of each branch and approved by the mayor, grant extra compensation to public officials or to contractors. The constitutionality of this provision is very doubtful, and although the power is frequently exercised, the question, so far as I know, has not been passed upon by the courts. Article III, Section 2, of the state constitution provides that "no bill shall be passed giving any extra compensation to any public officer, servant, or employé, agent or contractor after services shall have been rendered, or contract made." If then this act is not unconstitutional the conclusion is that the legislature may authorize councils to do that which it cannot do itself. In other words a body whose every power and very existence emanates from the legislature has power that the legislature does not possess.

With common council rests the sole power of originating loan ordinances. Every ordinance for borrowing money must, after its introduction and before its final passage, be published in at least two daily papers of the city. The ordinance must state the specific purposes for which the loan is authorized, and no part of it can be used for any other purpose. A subsequent ordinance diverting any part of it to other purposes would be illegal. An instance of such illegal action is that of transferring the \$250,000 authorized by the loan

ordinance of April 3, 1894, for the construction of a gas holder, to the Bureau of Water by a subsequent ordinance of October 9, 1894.

Select council has power to confirm appointments made by the mayor in the case of heads of departments, and the appointments made by the heads of departments to fill vacancies caused by removals. They have in addition assumed the power to confirm the appointment of all officers under any branch of the city government. Their authority to do so is disputed.

The general assembly has recently passed acts reorganizing the legislative branches in cities of the second and third class. In Philadelphia, however, most of the acts now in force pertaining to the organization of councils bear dates prior to that of the present constitution. It is a popular but erroneous belief that most cities in the United States possess the bicameral system. Of five chief cities, New York, Chicago and Brooklyn have but a single legislative body. The same ratio holds true of the ten largest cities, and of the 376 incorporated cities of more than 8000 inhabitants, 294 are unicameral, and only 82 bicameral. At present there is a marked tendency throughout the country toward a single legislative chamber. Without laying any stress upon the relative advantages and disadvantages of the two systems, the experience of England and of the United States abundantly demonstrates the utter uselessness of the second chamber. Where a second chamber does exist it is of great importance that it should be based upon some rational principle of representation, and that its constitution should not be inimical to the principles of just representation. The equal representation of the states in the United States Senate was a compromise without which any effective plan of union would have been impossible. Moreover, it has some political significance, representing as it does the original political equality of the states. It is a fact of perhaps greater present importance that, however undesirable we may now consider equal representation of the states in the Senate, this particular feature of the constitution cannot be amended.

It is surprising to what length we have been led in reasoning from a false analogy, if it can be said that we have reasoned at all, in adopting equal ward representation in select council. Not a single condition which made equal state representation in the United States Senate a necessity exists in regard to the wards. The ward boundaries are purely arbitrary lines, the divisions being made upon no single principle whatever. They are not equal either in regard to population, property or territorial extent; nor does the ward even constitute an

administrative unit. It is, however, the basis of party organization, and gives rise to an excessive localism which in no small measure contributes toward rendering councils the weakest feature of our city government. As all legislation must receive the concurrent action of both branches of councils, the result of this mal-apportionment is that one-third of the voters in Philadelphia elect a majority of members in select council, and this, too, without any reference to political parties. If we assume that the voters in certain wards are divided equally as to parties we discover the astounding fact that the representatives of one-sixth of the voters can pass or defeat any measure in select council against the combined efforts of the other five-sixths. The exact figures, as shown by the vote of the general election in 1894, are nineteen wards cast 60,053 votes as against 133,718 cast by the remaining eighteen wards. Although the movement now on foot to divide the twenty-ninth ward is probably inspired by some other motive than that of just representation, it is not at all strange that the 9000 voters of that ward should consider that they are not getting justice when they have no more power in select council than the 1500 voters of either the ninth or of the sixth ward. Yet there are two other wards that poll nearly 2000 more votes each than the twenty-ninth, and there are several others in which the vote approximates that of the twenty-ninth.

Common council to-day contains nearly twice as many members as there were representatives in the first national congress under the constitution; it has exactly the same number as the last New York Assembly, and more than the lower branch of the legislature in most of the southern and western states.

So long as members of councils serve without pay, the question of numbers on the ground of direct expense is not perhaps material. But if the time should ever come when the policy of paying members is adopted the question of numbers would at once be an important one. If, as is commonly supposed, most men are not in councils from motives of pure patriotism or "for their health," all classes of the community having an interest in the action of councils might realize economies through a decrease in the number of members. It is safe to assert that a single legislative chamber containing from twenty-four to thirty-six members, paid a fair compensation for their services, especially if the members really represent the people, would transact the city's business better and at a considerable saving to the taxpayers.

ALBERT A. BIRD.



### The Passing of Summer.

The China trees and the dog-wood are hanging out their banners, yellow, golden, glorious—bright signals of the changing season. Young oaks by the riverside are blushing a little, and the maple has lighted her torch in the embers of dying summer. A change has fallen upon the elm, and autumn flowers are gay in garden borders. The birds for the most part have broken up housekeeping, and are at frolic with their families in the woods. The haze-hidden hills stretch away into some far and longed-for land. The thump of dropping apples beats time for the march of the departing season, who, as he goes, lays his fingers upon everything out of doors, and touches it into a wanton glory of color.

Coincident with the change in nature, seasonable alterations are going on in the life of men. While the woods bedeck themselves, it, indeed, takes on more sober garb. But though life assumes an exterior of more serious tone, it is no safe deduction that it is in reality either less gay or less active. With us, when the year begins to die, life begins to be lived.

Once more the fires are kindled on family hearthstones. Once more appears upon the table in the old familiar place, comely, rotund and toothsome, the pumpkin pie, focus of eyes filled with the beautiful light of recollection. Again the school-boy takes his place in the form, and brings his initials up to date. Again the school-maid, sweet in braided hair, sighing, and with thoughts more divided than ancient Gaul, dusts off her books, while her elder sister makes ready to ride a-tilt into the winter's jousts. Returning city-dwellers throng the paths of population, and the voice of traffic is heard in the streets. Bill-boards lift again their chromatic clamor, and the play-house manager has visions of long lines of lamps at ten forty-five, before his doors.

And now the county fair bursts into happy realization. Squashes stretch their necks to look at impossibilities in turnips; roasting-ears huskily protest their indifference to drought, and bearded wheat shares honors with the bearded lady. Here good youths taste the unholy joy of the horse-trot; here the ingenuous congressman grasps the hand of the constituent, and effuses, with sincerity and discrimination. In city and country alike, the pulse of life beats faster. The passing of the leaves is no chill monitor for the world, which heeds not, neither is afraid with any amazement. Awakening life asserts itself through all the ways of men while, the last flush upon its cheek, the summer hastens to its tryst with death.

WILLIAM BAYARD HALL.

### From Old Authors.

#### From Izaak Walton.

[Few writers of the seventeenth century are better known to the readers of to-day than is Isaak Walton (1593-1633). It is difficult to say precisely wherein lies the charm of his books, "The Complete Angler" and the "Lives." There is little or no conscious art in Walton's prose style and his subjects are often such as have little interest for the present generation. The secret doubtless lies in the gentle, sweet personality of the author who, without his own knowledge, put himself into everything which he wrote. The subjoined passage is selected as giving an example of the quaint, rural atmosphere of "The Complete Angler." The songs were not written by Walton, but he weaves them into his scene with an artless skill which makes them his own.]

As I left this place and entered into the next field, a second pleasure entertained me: 'twas a handsome milkmaid, that had not yet attained so much age and wisdom as to load her mind, with any fears of many things that will never be, as too many men too often do: but she cast away all care, and sung like a nightingale; her voice was good; and the ditty fitted for it,—it was that smooth song, which was made by Kit Marlow, now at least fifty years ago. And the milkmaid's mother sung an answer to it, which was made by Sir Walter Raleigh in his younger days.

They were old-fashioned poetry, but choicely good; I think, much better than the strong lines which are now in fashion in this critical age. Look yonder! on my word, yonder, they both be a milking again. I will give her the chub, and persuade them to sing those two songs to us.

God speed you, good woman! I have been a fishing; and am going to BLEAK-HALL to my bed; and having caught more fish than will sup myself and my friend, I will bestow this upon you and your daughter, for I use to sell none.

*Milk-wife.*—Marry! God requite you, sir, and we'll eat it cheerfully. And if you come this way a-fishing two months hence, a grace of God! I'll give you syllabub of new verjuice, in a new-made hay-cock for it. And my Maudlin shall sing you one of her best ballads; for she and I both love all anglers, they be such honest, civil, quiet men. In the meantime will you drink a draught of red cow's milk? you shall have it freely.

*Piscator.*—No, I thank you; but, I pray, do us a courtesy that shall stand you and your daughter in nothing, and yet we will think ourselves still something in your debt: it is but to sing us a song that was sung by your daughter when I, last, past over this meadow, about eight or nine days since.

*Milk-wife.*—What song was it, I pray? Was it, "Come shepherds, deck your herds?" or,

"As at noon *Dulcina* rested?" or, "*Phillida* flouts me?" or, "*Chevy Chace*?" or, "*Jonny Armstrong*?" or, "*Troy Town*?"

*Piscator*.—No, it is none of those; it is a song that your daughter sung the first part, and you sung the answer to it.

*Milk-wife*.—O, I know it now. I learned the first part in my golden age, when I was about the age of my poor daughter; and the latter part, which indeed fits me best now, but two or three years ago, when the cares of the world began to take hold of me: but you shall, God willing, hear them both; and, sung as well as we can, for we both love anglers. Come, *Maudlin*! sing the first part to the gentlemen, with a merry heart; and I'll sing the second, when you have done.

#### THE MILKMAID'S SONG.

Come live with me, and be my love;  
And we will all the pleasures prove,  
That valleys, groves, or hills, or field,  
Or woods, and steepy mountains yield,—

Where we will sit, upon the rocks,  
And see the shepherds feed our flocks,  
By shallow rivers; to whose falls,  
Melodious birds sing madrigals.

And I will make thee beds of roses;  
And, then, a thousand fragrant posies;  
A cap of flowers; and a kirtle,  
Embroidered all with leaves of myrtle;

A gown made of the finest wool,  
Which from our pretty lambs we pull;  
Slippers, lined choicely for the cold;  
With buckles of the purest gold.

A belt, of straw and ivy-buds,  
With coral clasps, and amber studs.  
And if these pleasures may thee move,  
Come live with me, and be my love.

Thy silver dishes for thy meat  
As precious as the Gods do eat,  
Shall, on an ivory table, be  
Prepared each day for thee and me.

The shepherd swains shall dance and sing,  
For thy delight, each *May* morning.  
If these delights thy mind may move,  
Then live with me, and be my love.

*Venator*.—Trust me, master! it is a choice song, and sweetly sung by honest *Maudlin*. I now see it was not without cause, that our good Queen Elizabeth did so often wish herself a milkmaid all the month of May; because they are not troubled with fears and cares, but sing sweetly all the day, and sleep securely all the night,—and without doubt, honest, innocent, pretty *Maudlin* does so. I'll bestow Sir Thomas Overbury's milkmaid's wish upon her, "That she may die in the spring; and, being dead, may have good store of flowers stuck around about her winding-sheet."

#### THE MILKMAID'S MOTHER'S ANSWER.

If all the world and love were young;  
And truth in every shepherd's tongue,  
These pretty pleasures might me move;  
To live with thee and be thy love.

But Time drives flocks from field to fold;  
When rivers rage; and rocks grow cold,  
Then *Philomet* becometh dumb;  
And age complains of care to come.

The flowers do fade, and wanton fields  
The wayward winter, reckoning, yields.  
A honey tongue, a heart of gall,  
Is fancy's spring, but sorrow's fall.

Thy gowns, thy shoes, thy beds of roses,  
Thy cap, thy kirtle, and thy posies,  
Soon break, soon wither, soon forgotten;  
In folly ripe, in reason rotten.

The belt of straw, and ivy buds,  
The coral clasps, and amber studs,—  
All these in me no means can move,  
To come to thee and be thy love.

What should we talk of dainties, then,  
Of better meat than's fit for men?  
These are but vain; that's only good  
Which God hath blest, and sent for food.

But could youth last; and, love still breed;  
Had joys no date; nor, age no need;  
Then those delights my mind might move,  
To live with thee, and be thy love.

*Mother*.—Well; I have done my song. But stay, honest angler! for I will make *Maudlin* to sing you one short song more. *Maudlin*! sing that song that you sung last night, when young *Coridon* the shepherd played so purely on his oaten pipe, to you and your cousin *Betty*.

*Maudlin*.—I will, mother.

I married a wife of late,  
The more's my unhappy fate:  
I married her for love,  
As my fancy did me move,  
And not for a worldly estate.  
But oh! the green sickness  
Soon changed her likeness;  
And all her beauty did fail.  
But 'tis not so,  
With those that go,  
Through frost and snow,  
As all men know,  
And carry the milking-pail.

*Piscator*.—Well sung. Good woman! I thank you. I'll give you another dish of fish one of these days; and then beg another song of you. Come, scholar! let *Maudlin* alone: do not you offer to spoil her voice. Look! yonder comes mine hostess to call us to supper. How now! is my brother Peter come?

*Hostess*.—Yes, and a friend with him. They are both glad to hear that you are in these parts; and long to see you; and long to be at supper, for they be very hungry.

## From Herrick.

[Robert Herrick is the greatest of the Cavalier poets. His long life (1591-1634) was spent in comparative seclusion from the stirring events which caused so many of the singers of that age to give up the writing of poetry for the sterner business of fighting. Most of Herrick's life was spent at Cambridge and in quiet Devonshire, where he was appointed to a living. His best poetry is purely lyrical, written upon all sorts of occasions and with perfect ease and natural movement. His best poems are contained in the "Hesperides," dated 1648.]

## THE ARGUMENT OF THE HESPERIDES.

I sing of brooks, of blossoms, birds, and bowers,  
Of April, May, of June, and July-flowers;  
I sing of May-poles, hock-carts, wassails, wakes,  
Of bridegrooms, brides, and of their bridal-cakes.  
I write of Youth, of Love;—and have access  
By these, to sing of cleanly wantonness;  
I sing of dew, of rains, and, piece by piece,  
Of balm, of oil, of spice, and ambergris.  
I sing of times trans-shifting; and I write  
How roses first came red, and lilies white.  
I write of groves, of twilight, and I sing  
The court of Mab, and of the Fairy King.  
I write of Hell; I sing, and ever shall  
Of Heaven,—and hope to have it after all.

## HIS PRAYER TO BEN JONSON.

When I a verse shall make,  
Know I have prayed thee,  
For old religion's sake,  
Saint Ben, to aid me.

Make the day smooth for me,  
When I, thy Herrick,  
Honoring thee on my knee,  
Offer my Lyric.

Candles I'll give to thee,  
And a new altar,  
And thou, Saint Ben, shall be  
Writ in my psalter.

## TO ANTHEA.

Bid me to live, and I will live  
Thy Protestant to be;  
Or bid me love, and I will give  
A loving heart to thee.

A heart as soft, a heart as kind,  
A heart as sound and free  
As in the whole world thou canst find,  
That heart I'll give to thee.

Bid that heart stay, and it will stay  
To honor thy decree;  
Or bid it languish quite away,  
And 't shall do so for thee.

Bid me to weep, and I will weep,  
While I have eyes to see,  
And having none, yet I will keep  
A heart to weep for thee.

Bid me despair, and I'll despair,  
Under that cypress tree;  
Or bid me die, and I will dare  
E'en death, to die for thee.

Thou art my life, my love, my heart,  
The very eyes of me;  
And hast command of every part,  
To live and die for thee.

## Books.

## THE MAKING OF THE NATION. 1783-1817.

By Francis A. Walker, Ph. D., LL. D.,  
president Massachusetts Institute of Tech-  
nology, with Maps and Appendices.  
New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1895.  
8vo, pp. 314.

President Walker's latest book is the third in a noteworthy series on American history. The first volume, dealing with the colonial era, was prepared by Professor George P. Fisher, of Yale. The second was contributed by Professor William M. Sloane, of Princeton, and treats of the French and Indian Wars and the American Revolution. President Walker takes up the narrative and carries it a little beyond the close of the War of 1812 and Professor John W. Burgess, of Columbia, is still at work on the two volumes dealing with our national history since 1817.

Several years before Professor Fisher's book appeared the initial number of a series under the editorship of Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, of Harvard, and somewhat similar, was published by Longmans, Green & Co. The series was styled "Epochs of American History." Mr. Reuben Gold Thwaites, secretary of the State Historical Society of Wisconsin, prepared the first volume which covers the same period as Professor Fisher's book in the American History Series. The second volume was written by the editor and treats of the period between 1750 and 1829. Professor Woodrow Wilson, of Princeton, contributed to the series the last volume, covering the period from 1829 to 1889.

All of the volumes in the Epochs series and all but the last two in the American History Series have appeared. The two series are uniformly excellent. They are philosophic rather than narrative. Mere details have been sacrificed in deference to tendencies and principles. The arrangement of the volumes in the Epochs series and the firmer emphasis laid on economic forces adapt it especially to the needs of students in our colleges and universities. The arrangement of the American History Series and its closer adherence, both in method and in style, to a popular and literary design make it the more readable.

It is no discredit to the veteran historian, Professor Fisher, and to the accomplished secretary of the Wisconsin Historical Society, Mr. Thwaites, to say that their contributions are the least attractive in the two series; for Americans care for national rather than colonial history. The spirit and the method of Professor Sloane's highly interesting volume

are too unlike the spirit and the method of the sections of Professor Hart's book which cover the same period to make a comparison of the two volumes worth while. Professor Hart's book lends itself more readily to comparison with President Walker's volume.

President Walker and Professor Hart are alike successful in seizing the salient facts of our history between 1783 and 1817 with rare perspicuity, and in presenting them with a a conciseness which never degenerates into obscurity. Both the books are remarkably free from errors in facts and in dates. President Walker's book, thanks to the painstaking assistance of his colleagues, Professors Levermore and Currier, and to his own keen scent for defects, is almost a model in this regard. Professor Hart's volume is deeply satisfying to the student. But the casual reader does not take it up to fill a leisure hour as he does Professor Wilson's intensely interesting book in the same series, for Professor Hart's volume is literary pemmican which, however nutritious, never becomes appetizing until it has been expanded by collateral reading and trituration by much thinking. In President Walker's book one finds no unreadable pages. The book is a vivid and true picture of our political life during the early days under the constitution. It conveys an impression complex to be sure, but always clear, always accurately true. The author paints his picture like a Rembrandt rather than a Rubens. One expects to find in the historical work of an old soldier some trace of partisanship in dealing with questions which gave rise at last to the Civil War; he discovers in President—sometime General—Walker's book only a lofty patriotism chastened by a rich historic feeling. Even in dealing with the slavery question there is here less partisan bias than one may find in the book of Professor Hart who follows the example of his old master, Professor Von Holst, in exaggerating the importance of slavery in our earlier history. Each volume has a good index. President Walker's useful tables betray the census taker of 1870 and 1880. Professor Hart gives us better maps and bibliographical references—more comprehensive and better arranged—a virtue peculiar to the entire Epochs series, and more wisely selected. The two volumes are mutually supplementary. Together they constitute the best brief account we have of the period that separates the close of our first from the close of our second war for independence from Great Britain.

The primary purpose of President Walker's book appears in the title. The author believes that the making of the nation took place between 1783 and 1817. He renounces, as all

real students must do sooner or later, the purely lawyer-like theory held by Story, Webster and Curtis, that the nation sprang to life in 1789, like Pallas Athene full-grown and armed from the brain of Zeus. But he does not accede to the view of Hon. John Randolph Tucker and Professor Albion W. Small, that the American people simply evaded the responsibility of deciding that they were a nation until they took to the sword in 1861. President Walker takes the *via media*. He says that "Midway between those who hold that the adoption of the constitution established an indissoluble union of indestructible States, and those who hold that the question of nationality was decided seventy-five years later, by the arbitrament of arms, we assert that the United States became a true and virtual nation during the first three or four decades of its history." The convention of 1787, he believes, "dodged the vital question of nationality." The United States were made into a nation "not wholly or mainly, by the terms of the constitution, but by the logic of events; by the fortunes of the nation; by the growth of population; the quickening of transportation; the diversification of industry; the acquisition of territory; by a gradual process of evolution under the impulse or constraint of forces, some of which had not appeared in 1787; and, lastly, by act of war." The making of the nation began, he insists, after the Revolution and was completed at the close of the War of 1812. The influence of Washington, Hamilton and Marshall, in developing a national consciousness, the nationalizing effect of the Louisiana purchase, of the conversion of Jefferson's Republicans to the national ideal and of the settlement of the great west were never more clearly treated.

The responsibility for the unhappy feud between John Adams and Hamilton is at last placed where it belongs—upon Hamilton. Hamilton's brilliancy, his constructive and administrative ability, and his patriotism are freely acknowledged. But President Walker thinks that "a little more of that greatness of soul which lifted Washington and Jay so high in the esteem of their countrymen, would have prevented the painful exhibition" of jealousy, spite and aimless rage seen in Hamilton's publication in 1800 of the fatuous pamphlet against John Adams. At last after a century of ridicule, the pure, brave, loyal John Adams has a mighty champion against the charges of excessive vanity and suspiciousness which Hamilton set afloat. It is unfortunate that this excellent defence of Adams is marred by an occasional word of depreciation of Hamilton and by a failure, perhaps



unconscious, to make full acknowledgment of Hamilton's services in the Poughkeepsie Convention and in Washington's Cabinet.

The ever-interesting story of the convention of 1787 is retold. More might well have been said concerning the Connecticut compromise, the credit of originating which belongs, Senator Hoar once said, to his forebear, Roger Sherman. There was no need to recapitulate the constitution. Every student already has easy access to the text. To some readers the statement that the constitution at once found favor among the tories will come as news. Had President Walker seen Mr. Libby's excellent monograph published recently by the University of Wisconsin, he would doubtless have added the interesting fact that the advocates of the new constitution were found chiefly in the thickly settled districts along the coast and the waterways, while its opponents lived in the sparsely settled districts inland. Mr. Libby's lucid sentences concerning the awakening of national consciousness as fast as settlers moved into the back-lands would have furnished the author another argument for his view of the nationalizing influence of western migration.

Some of us are surprised to hear that the bank of 1781 had a perceptible influence in establishing the bank of 1791. At last we have a clear and fair statement of the extenuating elements which ought always to be remembered in considering the Whiskey Insurrection. The characteristic blunder of the Federalists in enacting the Sedition Law is pointed out, and Jefferson and Madison are roundly and deservedly scored for their share in the discreditable Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions which the American people from Massachusetts to Georgia hastened to repudiate. The explanation of our naval victories in the War of 1812 is not less trustworthy because humorous. It is difficult, indeed, to treat the War of 1812 quite seriously, from the time when poor Madison with the southern and western war dogs snarling at his heels, played the rôle of Bob Acres in the duel, to the treaty of peace which decided none of the questions for which we had gone to war. The Hartford Convention, like Shays' Rebellion, is handled with unwonted tenderness. The real objection to the convention lay, of course, in the mere fact of the convention, for which there was, and can be, no excuse.

The account of Jefferson is disappointing. Another historian has lost the opportunity to say the final word about the founder of the modern Democratic party. But it must give a thrill to free traders who have not compared the Jefferson of 1787 with the Jefferson of 1807, 1816 and 1820, to read that "Mr.

Jefferson was the most extravagant protectionist ever placed in a position importantly to influence the trade and industry of a civilized nation." The author is peculiarly happy in his character sketches of Washington, Jay, Gallatin, Marshall and others. His pictures are never theatrical, and seldom picturesque, like Goldwin Smith's; but what is vastly better, President Walker's sketches are always vivid, always true to life. The pages which show how largely the inborn genius for mechanical invention has contributed to the development of America contain little that is new. The author even quotes an organ of English opinion that: "Invention is a normal function of the American brain. The American invents as the Greek chiseled, as the Venetian painted, as the modern Italian sings." But President Walker makes this opinion his own by a full and more satisfying explanation than any other historian gives of the influence of our inventive genius in promoting settlement and in developing agriculture.

It would take long to exhaust the catalogue of merits of this book, the most interesting and most accurate ever written concerning our history between 1783 and 1817. Every extension lecturer on this period of our history will probably make this his text-book, and certainly every extension student will find it the most interesting account of the making of the nation.

LYMAN P. POWELL.

### Notes.

The well-known Philadelphia firm of Porter & Coates, booksellers and publishers, has dissolved partnership. The business will be carried on by Henry T. Coates & Co.

Messrs. D. C. Heath & Co. have brought out under the title of "Coleridge's Principles of Criticism," Chapters I, III, IV and XIV to XXII, inclusive, of "Biographia Literaria." The book is edited by Andrew J. George, who furnishes an introduction and notes. The editor's work is carefully done, and students of literature will be pleased with this addition to Heath's English Classics.

From the American Book Company we have "Niagara Falls and Their History," in the "National Geographic Monographs," of the National Geographic Society, No. 7 of Vol. I, September, 1895, by G. K. Gilbert.

This is a careful statement of the history of the Falls, founded upon the best geological and other researches upon the subject. It is most creditably executed on good paper, in large type, with ample margins and many excellent illustrations.

These monographs are issued for twenty cents each or \$1.50 a year.

The *University Extension World*, published by the University of Chicago, has been discontinued. A bi-monthly, the *American Journal of Sociology*, is launched under the same auspices.

We have from Messrs. Macmillan & Co., the New York publishers, 66 Fifth avenue, two new volumes of the dainty "Temple Shakespeare," "King Henry V." and "King Richard III."

To every lover of Shakespeare, or to any one who aspires to become such, nothing can be more welcome than these cheap but exquisite little books, with their tasteful bindings, faultless paper and artistic printing. Every page is a joy to the cultivated eye, the more so for being unencumbered with distracting references, while the volumes themselves are so small and light that they can be carried unnoticed in the pocket, and read at odd moments anywhere.

Each play has a preface and glossary by Mr. Israel Gollancz. The price is a marvel, being only forty-five cents per volume. The publishers announce that the plays of Hamlet, King Lear and Othello, will follow King Henry VIII.

A notable book is "Peasant Rents," of the economic classics series, edited by W. J. Ashley, for Messrs. Macmillan & Co.

This is a reprint of the first half of "An Essay on the Distribution of Wealth and on the Sources of Taxation," by Richard Jones, published originally in 1831. Mr. Jones succeeded Malthus in 1835 as professor of Political Economy at the East India College, Haileybury. It was said of him that "much of what has been preached by the German Historical School is found distinctly indicated in his writings."

It is a consolation, though rather a sad one, to rise from Mr. Jones' dismal picture of the state of the peasantry in Central and Eastern Europe, and especially in Poland and Hungary, with the conviction that the condition of humanity has distinctly improved during our century.

In the present reprint, the original punctuation and spelling has been followed throughout. The price of the book is seventy-five cents.

Professor Goldwin Smith's little book, "A Trip to England," in Macmillan's miniature series, is a literary treat for those who know England as well as for those who are going there. For the latter it is invaluable.

As he himself says: "It seems useful in visiting a country to have not only a guide to places and routes, but a framework for observations and recollections." Such a framework the author furnishes. He writes out of full and ripe knowledge with his own trenchant style, and his luminous insight into the real meaning of things. The important bearings of many living and dying questions and institutions are touched upon, briefly but suggestively, and many valuable hints are given, as to what is best to see and think about in England, which could not be obtained from guide books. The miniature series is twenty-five cents per volume in paper, or seventy-five cents in cloth.

We have from the publishers, Messrs. Longmans, Green & Co., 15 East Sixteenth street, New York, George Eliot's "Silas Marner" and Washington Irving's "Tales of a Traveler." These are neat reprints in very acceptable form, for new numbers of Longmans' English Classics, 1895.

"Tales of a Traveler" has an introduction by Professor Brander Matthews, A. M., LL. B., with notes and other illustrative matter, by Professor George Rice Carpenter, both of Columbia College, New York.

"Silas Marner" is edited, with notes and an introduction, by Professor Robert Herrick, of the University of Chicago.

The price is \$1 per volume.

The American Book Company, of New York, Cincinnati and Chicago, and G. & C. Merriam Company, Springfield, Mass., have issued a new edition of Webster's "Academic Dictionary," 704 pages, 8 vo., price \$1.50.

Although this is an entirely new book, abridged directly from Webster's "International Dictionary," care has been taken to preserve in it the essential features of the former Webster's "Academic Dictionary." The alterations consist in the increase of the amount of matter, improvement in typography, in the method of indicating pronunciation, in the number and quality of the illustrations, which are increased to 800, and other changes to make it more complete and serviceable.

The directors of the Old South Work, Old South Meeting-House, Boston, Mass., publish No. 56 of the "Old South Leaflets," "The Monroe Doctrine," being President Monroe's Message at the commencement of the first session of the Eighteenth Congress.

No. 4 of Vol. II, "Translations and Reprints from the Original Sources of European History," reaches us from the Department of History of the University of Pennsylvania. The present number, edited by Dana Carleton Munro, M. A., is entitled "Monastic Tales of the XIII. Century." It maintains the high standard of excellence set for this interesting series. The tales are well chosen for of giving to moderns some idea of the beliefs obtaining, in the so-called "Ages of Faith," as to miracles and the intervention of the supernatural powers in human affairs.

The price of the single numbers is fifteen cents; double numbers, twenty-five cents; yearly subscription, one dollar. Every earnest student of history should be a subscriber.

David McKay, publisher, 23 South Ninth street, Philadelphia, has just issued Murray's "Manual of Mythology," revised edition. It is a reprint of the English work, by Alexander S. Murray, of the Department of Greek and Roman Antiquities of the British Museum, published by Asher & Co., London, 1873, which was founded upon the German works of Petiscus, Preller and Welcker.

The old edition of Murray has been corrected in the light of recent discoveries, many engravings have been added, and some of the old cuts rejected or replaced. As an aid to the reader, a few genealogical tables have been inserted showing the relationship of the gods and goddesses. The book is a small octavo somewhat larger than the English edition, containing also a few more pages, and is tastefully bound in ornamented cloth. Price, \$1.25.

At a conference of the representatives of some thirty universities, and many historical students and writers, in New York City last April, it was decided to undertake the publication of a new quarterly, the *American Historical Review*. The editorial board consists of Professor George B. Adams, Yale University; Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, Harvard University; Professor Harry P. Judson, University of Chicago; Professor John Bach McMaster, University of Pennsylvania; Professor William M. Sloane, College of New Jersey; and Professor H. Morse Stephens, Cornell University. Professor J. Franklin Jameson, of Brown, is managing editor, and Professor Albert Bushnell Hart is treasurer and secretary. Macmillan & Co. have charge of the publication. The first number appears October 1. Professor Sloane will furnish an introductory article. There will also be papers by Professors Tyler, of Cornell, and Turner, of Wisconsin, and Henry Adams. Professor Tyler writes on "The Loyalists of the American Revolution," and Professor Turner on "State Making in the West, 1772-1789."

## University Extension News and Announcements.

### Oxford Summer Meeting.

The seventh University Extension Summer Meeting which was held in Oxford during August, proved as successful as have the former sessions, except in point of attendance, which was nevertheless six hundred and fifty. The period for study was the Eighteenth Century, the courses following in sequence those of 1894, and including lectures on history, literature, science, art, music, and economics, relative to the interval from 1688 to 1780. As heretofore the meeting was divided into two parts, enabling persons having a vacation of only a fortnight to attend profitably for that time. In the first part of the meeting, which was more popular than the second, there were lectures by Mr. Horsburgh, Mr. Shaw, Mr. Marriott, Mr. Mallet, Mr. Mackinder, Mr. Wallas, Mr. Sidgwick and Mr. Kimmins, all scholars closely identified with the extension movement, and Professor Lodge, of the University of Glasgow, Rev. T. W. Fowle, author of the "Poor Law," Sir Edward Russell, Professor J. P. Mahaffy, of Trinity College, Dublin, Mr. Augustine Birrell, M. P., and others, who were present for this occasion. Some of the subjects discussed during the meeting were, William III. and the Revolution of 1688, Scotland: The Revolution and the Union, Walpole, William Pitt and the Seven Years' War, Burke, Wesley, Captain Cook, France before the Revolution, Rousseau, Swift, Addison, English Towns in the Eighteenth Century, Adam Smith, Garriek, Bach, Handel, and Hogarth, Gainsborough and Reynolds.

The special features of the summer meeting were as valuable and delightful as the regular lecture work. Visits to the colleges with enthusiastic Fellows, extension conferences, debates, excursions to neighboring places on the Thames, special sermons, and opportunities for boating, bathing, cycling and tennis, must all be kept in mind in estimating the value and pleasure of such a gathering.

Nor should the international character of the summer meeting be overlooked. The students attending had the opportunity to meet under most pleasant circumstances persons from France, Belgium, Holland, Norway, Sweden, Austria, Scotland and England. The United States was well represented by visitors from no less than ten different states. Through the hospitality of the governing body of Worcester College, a large number of these visitors had the benefit and charm of full college residence, which was highly appreciated.

And, finally, mention must be made of the inspiring and ennobling atmosphere of Oxford herself. Any movement which will bring persons within the power of her influence will by that very fact do good. But the University Extension Summer Meeting does much more, for it adds to this atmosphere a systematic course of instruction by university men, and a helpful contact with earnest persons who have come together with enthusiasm in the cause of adult education.

JOHN NOLEN.

Professor Nathaniel Butler who has so ably directed the University Extension work at the University of Chicago, has decided to retire. On January 1, next, he will assume the presidency of Colby University from which he graduated in 1873.

### Lectures—Autumn, 1895.

At the time "The Citizen" goes to press the following Courses are definitely arranged.

COURSES ARE UNIFORMLY SIX LECTURES EACH.

#### CENTRES IN PHILADELPHIA.

| CENTRE.  | LECTURER.             | SUBJECT.                              | DATES OF LECTURES.                   |
|--|-----------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
|  |                       |                                       | 1895.                                |
| Association Local . . .<br>15th and Chestnut sts.  | Clarence G. Child . . | English Literature prior to 1500. . . | Nov. 8, 15, 22, 29, Dec. 6, 13.      |
| Church of the Covenant<br>27th and Girard ave.     | W. Clarke Robinson .  | English Poets of the Revolution Age   | Oct. 10, 24, Nov. 7, 21, Dec. 5, 19. |
| North Philadelphia . . .<br>Broad and Diamond sts. | Thomas W. Surette . . | Development of Music . . . . .        | Oct. 7, 14, 21, 28, Nov. 4, 11.      |
| South Philadelphia . . .<br>Broad and Federal sts. | Robert Ellis Thompson | American Literature . . . . .         | Nov. 7, 14, 21, Dec. 5, 12, 19.      |
| West Park . . . . .<br>41st and Westminster ave.   | Robert Ellis Thompson | English Literature . . . . .          | Oct. 14, 21, 28, Nov. 4, 18, Dec. 2. |

#### CENTRES OUT OF PHILADELPHIA.

|                        |                        |                                      |   |
|------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| Camden, N. J. . . . .  | James O. Murray . .    | Earlier Plays of Shakespeare. . . .  | Oct. 7, 21, Nov. 4, 18, Dec. 2, 16.                   |
| Chester . . . . .      | W. Clarke Robinson .   | Shakespeare: the Man and his Mind.   | Nov. 11, 18, 25, Dec. 2, 9, 16.                       |
| Greenville . . . . .   | Edward T. Devine . .   | Representative Americans . . . . .   | Oct. 3, 17, 31, Nov. 14, 28, Dec. 12.                 |
| Hazleton . . . . .     | Lyman P. Powell . .    | American Political History . . . . . | Sep. 25, Oct. 9, 23, Nov. 6, 20, Dec. 4.              |
| Indiana . . . . .      | Edward T. Devine . .   | Representative Americans . . . . .   | Sep. 23, Oct. 7, 21, Nov. 4, 18, Dec. 2.              |
| Johnstown . . . . .    | Edward T. Devine . .   | Representative Americans . . . . .   | Sep. 24, Oct. 1, 8, 15, 22, 29.                       |
| Lock Haven . . . . .   | Henry W. Elson . . .   | Between the Two Wars, 1812-1860.     | Sep. 26, Oct. 10, 24, Nov. 7, 21, Dec. 5.             |
| Media . . . . .        | Robert Ellis Thompson  | Historical Sociology . . . . .       | Nov. 15, 29, Dec. 13, 27, 1895,<br>Jan. 10, 24, 1896. |
| New Brighton . . . . . | Edward T. Devine . .   | Representative Americans . . . . .   | Sep. 26, Oct. 10, 24, Nov. 7, 21, Dec. 5.             |
| New Hope . . . . .     | Ethelbert D. Warfield  | Age of Elizabeth . . . . .           | Oct. 26, Nov. 2, 9, 16, 23, Dec. 7.                   |
| Orange, N. J. . . . .  | William B. Scott . . . | Dynamical Geology. Part I. . . . .   | Oct. 11, 25, Nov. 8, 22, Dec. 6, 20.                  |
| Richmond, Va. . . . .  | Thomas W. Surette . .  | Development of Music . . . . .       | Not fixed.  |

N. B. In all cases the lectures are at 8 p. m.

## OLD SOUTH LEAFLETS.

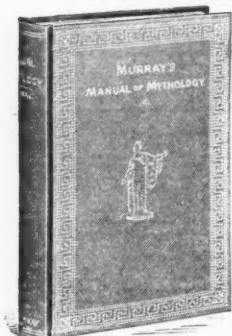


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